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THE CULTURALLY DIFFERENT CHILD IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS.

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AN ATTEMPT TO SEPARATE THE PROBLEMS OF CULTURAL DIFFERENCE FROM THE MORE GENERAL PROBLEMS OF UNDERACHIEVMENT IS MADE IN THIS OVERVIEW OF CURRENT RESEARCH. THE CULTURALLY DIFFERENT STUDENT COMES PRIMARILY FROM THE LOWER SOCIOECONOMIC LEVELS OF AMERICAN SOCIETY. HE IS DIFFERENT FROM THOSE STUDENTS WHO ARE MENTALLY RETARDED, PHYSICALLY HANDICAPPED, EMOTIONALLY DISTURBED, OR SIMPLY BORED BY SCHOOL. THE CULTURALLY DIFFERENT ARE THE UNASSIMILATED AMERICANS WHO FOR HISTORICAL AND CULTURAL REASONS HAVE NOT BEEN MADE AN INTEGRAL PART OF AMERICAN SOCIETY. THIS CAUSES PROBLEMS THAT CAN BE BROADLY CLASSIFIED AS SOCIAL-CULTURAL, SOCIAL-PSYCHOLOGICAL, AND EDUCATIONAL. THE ULTIMATE GOAL OF PROGRAMS FOR THE CULTURALLY DIFFERENT SHOULD BE SOCIALIZATION RATHER THAN INTELLECTUALIZATION. A PROGRAM SHOULD STRESS--(1) ACADEMIC SUCCESS IN VERBAL AND READING SKILLS, (2) POLITICAL MATURITY, PARTICULARLY THE MEANING AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF CITIZENSHIP, (3) SOCIAL MATURITY AND THE NEED FOR A STABLE FAMILY, AND (4) THE ECONOMIC VALUE OF HOLDING A JOB AS A USEFUL EMPLOYEE. IN IMPLEMENTING A PROGRAM FOR THE CULTURALLY DIFFERENT, IT MUST BE REMEMBERED THAT THE SCHOOL IS ONLY ONE ELEMENT IN THE COMMUNITY. THE SCHOOL MUST INTEGRATE WITH THE COMMUNITY AND REACH OUT TO PARENTS AND BUSINESSES IF IT IS TO BECOME THE PRIMARY INSTRUMENT IN THE SOCIALIZATION OF THE CULTURALLY DIFFERENT STUDENT. AN EXTENSIVE BIBLIOGRAPHY OF THE RESEARCH REVIEWED IN THIS REPORT IS INCLUDED. (DK)

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All aspects of society are functionally interrelated; this includes the school, since it is part of the total system. The schools do not function as something apart which can mold the society; they are not extra-social but are imbedded in the social system. Education acts within not upon the social system.

William B. Brookover
A Sociology of Education

PREFACE

A perusal of the literature on American education reveals a fallacy held by most writers on education which has profound significance for the problem of the culturally different pupil in American schools. The fallacy, which is articulated in a great variety of forms, runs something like this: Educational institutions have a decisive influence on the socialization of American children in preparing them for a useful life in American democracy, and the success of our society in the future is contingent upon the response of our educational institutions to the challenges of the sixties. The fallacies in this statement are numerous: (1) Educational institutions are <u>not</u> the major agent of socialization for American children, the family is. (2) Educational institutions <u>share</u> the role of socialization of Americans with a myriad of other institutions--religious, political, social, etc. (3) Educational institutions do <u>not</u> primarily create or produce values but transmit or reinforce the values of the macro-society in which they function. (4) The future of America, in the very broad terms in which it is discussed in educational literature, cannot be said to be contingent solely upon the responses of our educational institutions. In short, educational institutions do not perform the social role which Americans for 100 years have attributed to them. Educational institutions impart skills and reinforce a pattern of life in America which is a historical descendent of white Anglo-Saxon culture. In the case of the culturally different student, the dangers inherent in the fallacy of American education reveal themselves in full force.

The American school does not succeed with the culturally different student, for he does not share the culture of the normative, middle class American. The lower class Negro, white, Mexican, or other unassimilated groups in American society cannot have their culture reinforced or acquire skills which presuppose cultural assimilation because they are <u>not</u> part of the larger middle class, urban society for which the schools are intended to function. If the schools were the enormously effective agent of socialization which the fallacy of American education states, there would be no problem of the culturally different, for the school would simply take the student, socialize him, and emit him as a useful, productive, middle class citizen. However, the school does not provide this function of socialization which only the family can--at least given the present orientation of the schools. It will be the hypothesis of this paper that the American educational system has two responses with respect to this problem: (1) It can simply allow the processes of social and economic assimilation to envelope the culturally different until at some point in time they have by virtue of these natural processes become middle class; or (2) it can confront the fact that the school is only <u>one</u> institution of socialization in our society and <u>subsidiary</u> to the family and that in order to deal with the problem of the culturally different, it must be transformed from an institution which solely reinforces values to one which also creates them and from an institution with a secondary socialization role to one which, in the case of the culturally different, is primarily concerned with a massive socialization of the student. Because this paper is intended to provide information leading to a program of action, only the second of the two responses will be considered.

PART A: PROBLEM DEFINITION

This paper will discuss the culturally different in American schools in light of recent research and thought concerning this topic. The culturally different are those students who come from socio-economic groups which manifest a culture that deviates substantially from normative middle class culture in America. The society of the culturally different produces a student who, because of historical, social-cultural, and social-psychological maladjustment has difficulty performing in the American school system. It is hoped that a detailed explication of the characteristics of this student which follows will enable others to deal more effectively with the culturally different pupil in the educational institutions of this part of the United States.

PART B: WHO IS HE?

I. Introduction.

A. Who he is not. The culturally different pupil can best be brought into focus by demarcating him from the total student population by eliminating certain types of students who he is not. He is not the mentally handicapped, physically handicapped, or a student marked by some genetic or biological defect which limits school performance. He is not the above-average student with an "A" or "B" record who despite his grades finds school dull or uninteresting. He is not the middle class so-called "underachiever" who performs below expectations based on various tests; this student probably performs poorly or drops from school because he is not middle class in the full sense of the concept (e.g., he comes from a broken home) and if so, may actually be a functional part of the culturally different group. In any event, the middle class "underachiever" will not be treated in this paper. None of the above types, therefore, is included in the definition of the culturally different.

B. Who he is. The culturally different come primarily from the lower socio-economic levels of American society. The culture of this part of the social structure differs markedly from the middle levels which stress ownership of goods, cleanliness, tidiness, avoidance of overt forms of aggression and high emotions, and a method of socialization in which rules become implicit and an indistinguishable part of social behavior. (Sexton, 1961) The culturally different can be distinguished by lower scores on I.Q. tests; however, these tests indicate a difference of socio-economic level rather than a difference in intelligence when applied to the culturally different. (Lesser and Fifer, 1965; Robinson and Meenes, 1947; Jensen, 1961) In short, the culturally different are the unassimilated Americans who for historical and cultural reasons have not been made an integral part of American society. The following section describes in what specific ways this lack of cultural assimilation is manifested.

II. Descriptive Definition.

A. Historical. The culturally different come primarily from a rural, lower class, pre-industrial,social background in which they have adapted to the requirements of a non-urban society but are ill-suited to meet the needs of a modern, industrial city in which most of them reside. Ethnically, a large proportion are non-white--Negro, Mexican, and Puerto Rican--however, rural, southern whites and some southern Europeans should be included in the group.

B. Social-Cultural.

1. Home. The home is frequently disorganized and fails to provide a proper diet, health standards, or stability needed for a student to perform well. Excessive television watching and frequent moving contribute to a lack of constructive home stimulation. (Riessman, 1962)

2. Parents. His parents are less educated and less able and/or willing to provide guidance for their children than are parents of middle class children. It is common for a male to be absent from the home, which creates particular psychological problems for male children.

3. Neighborhood. The physical environment surrounding the home does not provide an atmosphere in which the culturally different pupil can relate to the larger society in which he must function. Neighborhood life is usually responsible for fostering negative, unrealistic, or undeveloped life goals by withholding the culturally different child from useful interaction with most social institutions, including the schools.

C. Social-Psychological.

1. Aspirations. Aspiration levels are generally lower among the culturally different when compared to middle class children (Curry, 1962; Boyd, 1952; Gist and Bennett, 1963; Gottlieb, 1964), or the culturally different have aspiration levels roughly equivalent to their middle class counterparts but lack the values (or skills) requisite for attaining such aspirations. (Rosen, 1956; Smith and Anderson, 1962)

2. Self-Image. A weak or negative self-image which retards academic achievement is common among the culturally different. This is frequently exacerbated by feelings of racial inferiority, especially among Negroes. (Williams and Knecht, 1962; Wylie, 1963; Ausubel and Ausubel, 1963; Bruck and Bowin, 1962; Davidson and Lang, 1960)

3. Achievement. Achievement level is generally lower for the culturally different, which has a cumulative effect; i.e., it declines as the culturally different student progresses by grades in school. (Deutsch, 1960; Douvan,

1956; Gill and Spilka, 1962; Kennedy, Van DeRiet, and White, 1963; Goff, 1954)

4. I.Q. The culturally different score lower on intelligence, achievement, and other relevant tests; however, this is probably caused by environmental and socio-economic factors rather than any innate lack of ability. (Haggard, 1954; Deutsch and Brown, 1964; Klineberg, 1963; Semler and Iscoe, 1963; Jensen, 1961; Lesser, Fifer, and Clark, 1965; Robinson and Meenes, 1947)

5. Gratification. The culturally different respond to immediate rather than deferred gratification for tasks performed, thereby reflecting a culture which emphasizes the present and lack of restraint rather than the middle class orientation of deferred gratification and self-discipline. (Steen, 1966; Malone, 1966; Mischel, 1961; Loeb, 1953; Davis, 1962)

6. Thought. The culturally different tend to think in concrete and functional rather than abstract and theoretical terms--another manifestation of a non-futuristic outlook in which thought is inductive rather than deductive. (Riessman, 1962; Siller, 1957)

7. Powerlessness. The culturally different student feels less able to control his environment, more a victim of circumstance, and less a master of his fate than a middle class student; this results in a feeling of powerlessness. (Battle and Rotter, 1963; Haggstrom, 1965)

8. Verbal Deficits. The lack of facility for symbolic thought, weak vocabulary, imprecise speech, poor articulation of ideas, and general weak home training in language create grammatical and syntactical language weaknesses and reading deficits which gravely retard his ability to learn before the culturally different child enters school. (Thompson, 1967; Bernstein, 1959, 1960, 1961, 1962; Carson and Robin, 1960; Johnson, 1938; John and Goldstein, 1964; Deutsch, 1963)

9. Passivity. Authoritarian child-rearing practices create a culturally different child in school who lacks curiosity and is passive. (Riessman, 1962)

10. Learning Retardation. The culturally different pupil lacks home training in cognitive and symbolic thinking and problem solving due to lack of stimulation from toys, books, and interaction with parents. Although not irreversible, this greatly affects his ability to learn how to read and acquire other needed school skills. (Ausubel, 1963; Deutsch, 1964b, 1965; Fowler, 1962; Bloom, Hess, and Davis, 1965)

D. Educational Problems.

1. Attitude Toward Education. He is likely to have a pragmatic

and anti-intellectual view of the educational process and be either indifferent or negative toward the value of education. (Demos, 1962; Riessman, 1962)

2. Dropout. The culturally different student is more likely to withdraw prematurely from school than the middle class pupil. (Lichter, 1962; Miller, 1964a; Sheldon, 1961; Cervantes, 1965)

3. Discipline. He is generally a greater problem for school discipline, with rejection of authority being a reaction to feelings of insecurity in the alien world of the school.

4. Teacher Relations. The middle class teacher views the culturally different student frequently with sympathy but more often rejects him as bothersome, which further retards his performance in school.

5. Rewards. The rewards of the school go primarily to those who adapt to the system; consequently the culturally different student is isolated from those activities by which he could benefit. (Slocomb, 1955; Abrahamson, 1952; Hollingshead, 1961)

6. Schools. The schools which the culturally different attend are more likely to be older, have a greater turnover of teachers, be lacking in scientific laboratories, etc.; the quality of education they receive is, therefore, somewhat poorer than that received by the middle class student. (Sexton, 1961; Coleman, 1966; Riessman, 1962)

7. Repeated Failures of Grades.

8. Attendance Record Poor.

9. Integration. The culturally different generally attend schools in which the student population is primarily drawn from the same socio-economic classes; however, much evidence exists that social class (or racial) integration may actually retard rather than facilitate educational advancement for the culturally different. The effects of segregation and integration, therefore, are now much debated, and large areas of the subject require further examination (Katz, 1964)

PART C: WHAT HAS BEEN DONE?

This paper will not attempt to analyze the large number of compensatory education programs which have been designed to aid the culturally different, but a few comments on the problems of such efforts will be attempted in this section.

The consensus of opinion on the research which has been carried out on a large number of compensatory education programs is that the programs are ambiguous in their effectiveness. Some projects have yielded no significant results (Longstreth and Shanley, 1964), some evidence retrogression when the participants are retested some months after the

termination of the program (Kolb, 1965), and others are reported by researchers to be encouraging but will require several more years of extensive testing before yielding meaningful conclusions. (Gray and Klaus, 1965) Authors agree that traditional changes in curriculum and physical plant have either a marginal effect on the culturally different or an effect not measurable by normal testing devices. (For some curriculum changes which may be effective, see PART E below.) Several authors warn that the quality of the research on compensatory education has been so weak methodologically, with little or no control over hidden variables, that meaningful information cannot easily be elicited from their results. (Brittain, 1966; Fowler, 1967; Wilkerson, 1964, 1965) When examining reports on compensatory education, one should be acutely aware of these shortcomings and the lack of solid research designs which characterize the preponderance of such reports.

Specific projects which have received a great deal of publicity, such as "Higher Horizons" in New York City, have recently been criticized by such authors as Frank Riessman (1962) as too expensive and inconclusive in effect because of inadequate research controls. Many projects only make use of the most intelligent and aggressive of the culturally different students (Cozzo, et al, 1964), and, therefore, it is difficult to apply their techniques to the entire culturally different student population. Work in Israel at the preschool and kindergarten levels has yielded encouraging results (Smilansky, n.d.); however, one should be hesitant in applying the principles from a program geared to Israeli society to a quite different society such as our own. Briefly then, the results of research thus far are inconclusive and often ambiguous and unfortunately do not provide grounds for emulation or substantial reproduction.

PART D: ULTIMATE GOALS: SOCIALIZATION, NOT INTELLECTUALIZATION

I. <u>Academic Success: Student</u>. The aims of a culturally different education program should stress the achievement of short-term, realistic goals rather than long-term, abstract goals which writers on education seem so prone to advocate. The program from the preschool level to high school should emphasize teaching basic verbal and reading skills (Newton, 1964) and establishing library and other facilities especially suited by location and content for the culturally different pupil. (Darling, 1963; Lowrie, 1965) The culturally different student is vitally in need of a high school education, but further academic training should be thought of as an ultimate objective not achievable in the proximate future.

II. <u>Political Maturity: Citizen</u>. There should be a re-emphasis on the teaching of elementary duties of American citizens as outlined in the United States Constitution: the right to vote, organize, peaceful petition, etc., and the culturally different student should be taught his role within the American polity. Only by overcoming his feelings of powerlessness and alienation can the culturally different student successfully function within American social institutions, especially the schools.

III. <u>Social Maturity: Family</u>. The culturally different student should

be taught basic skills necessary to function as a parent, such as child rearing practices, planned parenthood, etc. A stable family along middle class lines would form the foundation upon which all else would follow: academic achievement, social mobility, and psychological stability. A stable and organized society must be structured upon stable and organized fundamental family units.

IV. Economic Value: Employee. The culturally different must be trained to assume a useful role as an employee who can attain and retain a job. More emphasis must be placed upon vocational and business education, but with a concomitant effort to place graduates in desirable positions. Only by a forceful expansion of efforts in this area can the school make its aims consonant with the general social and economic goals of the society for which the school functions.

PART E: IMPLEMENTATION OF GOALS

I. Introduction. The first step in planning a program of education for the culturally different should be to determine with precision the characteristics of the principal participants in the program. This may be accomplished by testing pupils, teachers, and administrators for relevant data on intelligence, socio-economic background, educational attainments, and attitudes on questions such as race, integration, slow learners, etc. Accumulation of such information prior to the inauguration of a program may prove to prevent the use of techniques and personnel not suited to such a program. This may be especially valuable in recruitment of personnel with values and energy required for such an effort. (For tests, see Deutsch, 1964a, and appendices in Coleman, 1966.)

The problem of the culturally different can only be adequately handled by approaching the student as a member of society and not just as someone who functions within one institution; i.e., the school. The culturally different child must see the world in which he lives as a totality where all institutions are harmonized in a manner to enable him to achieve those goals he chooses to pursue in life. The section below is intended to provide a framework for a program of culturally different education; however, it must be emphasized that this is not a program, but simply a suggestive backdrop for a program.

II. Community. The school must integrate the community surrounding it into any program for the culturally different. The parents of the student participants will manifest behavior patterns similar to the students themselves and be unlikely to take part in school activities because of shyness and lack of information; therefore, the school must initiate and stimulate interest within the community for the educational program. The school should be open more often to community functions such as speakers or mass meetings. Administrators and other personnel should devote a large portion of their time to establishing and maintaining contacts with the community. Police should be invited to the school to explain their duties and functions in the neighborhood. Church organizations should be asked to integrate some of their activities with those of the school,

and civic organizations could easily supplement the education program with their own activities. In short, the school should take the lead as an active and initiating institution rather than the usual passive acquiescence within the community. (Marburger, 1964)

III. School.

A. Teachers. The teacher in such a program must have a certain personality and set of goals in order to be optimally effective. He must believe in what he is doing, have a great deal of energy and optimism, and preferably be young and aggressive. He may need special training and help in order to deal with the large work load required in a program for the culturally different. Previous training in the area where the culturally different are concentrated may be helpful. This could be modeled after an on-the-job training program conducted by Hunter College in New York in which teachers undergo training in the same school where they hope to teach. If they choose to drop from that school, they do so before signing a contract, not after one year of frustration. (Haubrich, 1963) For additional help in the classroom, teacher aides may be employed who could be non-accredited and recruited from the surrounding area. Some projects have used returning Peace Corps volunteers with some success in this role (Cuban, 1964); others have employed work-study students from local colleges as teacher aides. Also, big brother and big sister programs may be employed to make use of older children for tutoring and teaching younger schoolmates. This has been used effectively to benefit both the older and younger students psychologically and academically. (Strom, 1965; Taba and Elkins, 1966; Usdam and Bertolaet, 1966)

The teacher will also select the appropriate curriculum for his area of expertise. This may require a teacher to write his own text, for frequently textbooks and educational materials are written solely for the middle class student, and the culturally different student lacks the skills to use such materials. These duties, when supplemented by normal teaching obligations, indicate why it is desirable to have young, tireless teachers in a culturally different education program. (Loretan and Umans, 1966; Goodlad, 1966; Johnson, 1964)

B. Counselors. The counselor must be an active and competent figure in the program. He would provide diagnostic information on the students to teachers and administrators; the counselor would serve as a data bank for the program. In counseling sessions he must reinforce positive behavior in the students, deal with immediate behaviorial problems, and guide them to constructive activities. Job information must be available in the counselor's office, and he should have thorough knowledge of business conditions in the area. The counselor has traditionally been a rather inert figure in the school; however, in a program for the culturally different, he must be active in several spheres. (Phillips, 1960; Reed, 1964; Trueblood, 1960)

C. Administrators. The administrator is the key figure in the program. He must be responsible for coordinating the efforts of the school with those of the community at large. He must serve as a full-time liaison between the school and parents, civic organizations, churches, etc., in a comprehensive effort to educate and socialize the culturally different student. Only by his energy and interest can the school succeed in its complete task of not just training students for useful roles in society, but also training the society to be receptive to the introduction of useful citizens.

IV. Parents. As mentioned above, parents may be reluctant to participate in a program in which their children are involved; however, it is vital that the family of the culturally different student be simultaneously educated concerning the value and importance of the educational process. Parents should be part of school projects, brought to class to speak on their jobs, and visited by teachers at home in order to involve them in the total effort of the program. Parents should be invited to school to meet in small groups with teachers and counselors to discuss the program and their role in it. Only by making the parents part of the educational experiences in which their children are participating can a program for the culturally different achieve maximum effectiveness. (Fusco, 1964; Liddle, 1964; Sheppard, 1964)

V. Business. It would be futile to train the culturally different to cope with American society if the world of business were not receptive to these newly trained people. The businesses in the area--under the lead of the administrator--can serve a vital part in the education program. Businesses could provide the following services: (1) send speakers to schools; (2) subscribe to equal employment policies; (3) provide job-training programs; (4) work closely with school personnel; (5) give tours of businesses; (6) provide summer job programs; (7) establish work-study programs during the academic year; and (8) offer scholarships for high school. One cannot train the culturally different for jobs which do not exist, and the integration of local businesses in any program would be crucial. (Cervantes, 1965; Burchill, 1962)

VI. Research. The effectiveness of any program would be sharply reduced if a tight research plan were not made an integral part of it. As discussed in a previous section, many compensatory education projects have been strongly criticized for weak research designs which render the results of the project ambiguous and inconclusive; at the termination of the project one must know what has happened, and this requires meaningful statistical and research procedures. The five-step outline below was extracted from writings by Doxey Wilkerson (1965) and provides a framework in which research plans should be drawn:

A. A precise description of the educational experiences in the project.

B. Clear hypotheses of the effects of programmatic activities.

C. Definitions of tests for these hypotheses.

D. Collection and interpretation of data with technically valid procedures.

E. Follow-up of participants after leaving school or as they continue in the school system.

VII. Conclusion. The above suggestive framework would work best with a few grades in a vertically related set of schools; i.e., first, third, sixth, ninth, and eleventh grades, which would allow one to observe the effectiveness of the program on all age groups in the school. One should begin by concentrating on a few of the goals outlined in this section in a small-scale but intensive program. For example, a program could attempt to achieve positive values among students and parents toward education by a massive education and public information program. Perhaps if one convinced the culturally different community of the value of education, then school achievement would follow. A small-scale but concentrated effort would allow the school to engender enthusiasm focused on immediate goals. Only by several such massive, concentrated efforts can the school hope to make the culturally different a functioning citizen in American society.

The school, therefore, must be involved in the socialization process in which it heretofore was only a secondary agent. It must perform those tasks of socialization for the culturally different student--if it hopes, that is, to deal effectively with the problem--which the culturally different family is unable to perform. The culturally different student lacks the values and skills required to succeed in the middle class school, and, consequently, the school must fill the vacuum or else the vacuum will remain. Unless this educational problem is met by unprecedented and wholly non-traditional means, it will worsen and become a major disruptive force in the American social system.

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PART F: KEY GENERALIZATIONS ABOUT THE CULTURALLY DIFFERENT

- He is not mentally or physically handicapped.
- He is not the white middle class so-called "underachiever."
- He comes primarily from lower class, rural, ethnic minorities who have recently migrated to large cities.
- He has a culture which deviates from the normative middle class culture of America.
- He scores lower on I.Q. tests than middle class students.
- His home life is frequently noisy, disorganized, and mobile.
- His parents are less educated and less interested in education than middle class parents.
- His neighborhood atmosphere is not conducive to the development of realistic life goals.
- His aspirations are low.
- His achievement level is low.
- He desires immediate rather than future gratification for tasks performed.
- He has difficulty with symbolic and abstract thought.
- He has a feeling of powerlessness and inability to control his destiny.
- He has many verbal deficits which retard learning abilities.
- He tends to be passive in school and lacks curiosity.
- He tends to lack cognitive thinking skills which retard his ability to learn.
- He tends to have a low opinion of education.
- He is more likely to drop out of school.
- He is frequently a school discipline problem.
- He is less likely to get along or be liked by teachers.
- He is seldom the beneficiary of school rewards and benefits.
- He is more likely to receive a deficient education in an older school than a middle class student.
- He often fails grades.
- He often skips school.

- He may or may not function better in a racially and/or socially integrated school.

- He has not as yet been the recipient of compensatory education programs which have dramatically altered his pattern of life.

- He must have a high school education in order to cope with America's technological society.

- He must be able to function effectively in the American polity to protect and pursue his interests.

- He must be able to sustain a stable family.

- He must be able to attain and retain a job.

- He must be involved in a comprehensive program of education in which the community, school, parents, and businesses are bound together in a total effort to prepare him to function in American society.

APPENDIX: KEY PROJECTS FOR THE CULTURALLY DIFFERENT CHILD

The following was primarily abstracted from Compensatory Education for the Disadvantaged (New York, 1966) by Doxey Wilkerson and Edmund W. Gordon. For a description of the projects and further information, one should consult that work. Projects were selected on the basis of the frequency with which they appeared in the literature on the culturally different.

	City	Project
1.	Atlanta, Georgia	Education Improvement Project
2.	Baltimore, Maryland	An Early School Admissions Project
3.	Berkeley, California	Berkeley Unified School District Pilot Project
4.	Boston, Massachusetts	Operations Counterpoise
5.	Cleveland, Ohio	Hough Community Project
6.	Denver, Colorado	Pilot Program for Disadvantaged
7.	Detroit, Michigan	Detroit Great Cities Project
8.	Fresno, California	Compensatory Education Program for Fresno
9.	Kansas City, Missouri	Kansas City Work-Study Program to Reduce Juvenile Delinquency
10.	Los Angeles, California	Supplementary Teaching Program
11.	New York, New York	Higher Horizons
12.	Oakland, California	Interagency School Project
13.	Philadelphia, Pennsylvania	Great Cities School Improvement Program
14.	Phoenix, Arizona	Careers for Youth
15.	Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania	Compensatory Education Program
16.	Racine, Wisconsin	Pilot Kindergarten Project
17.	San Bernardino, California	Training Natural Talent Project
18.	St. Louis, Missouri	Efforts in the Banneker District to Raise Academic Achievement of Culturally Disadvantaged Children
19.	Wilmington, Delaware	Three-Year Experimental Project on Schools in Changing Neighborhoods
20.	Ypsilanti, Michigan	Perry Preschool Project.

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15. _____. "A Public Language: Some Sociological Implications of Linguistic Form," British Journal of Sociology, (Dec., 1959), 311-327.

16. _____. "Social Class and Linguistic Development: A Theory of Social Learning," A. H. Halsey, et al. (ed.), Education, Economy, and Society, Glencoe, Ill., 1961.

17. _____. "Linguistic Codes, Hesitation, Phenomena, and Intelligence," Language and Speech, V (1960), 31-46.

These important studies show the social class variations of language (in Britain) and the necessity of compensating for lack of vocabulary and language skills for lower class children in the schools.

18. Bettleheim, Bruno. "How Much Can Man Change," New York Review of Books, III (Sept. 10, 1964), 1-40.

19. Biological Sciences: Patterns and Pressures. American Institute of Biological Science, Boulder, Colorado, 1966.

20. Bloom, Benjamin; David, Allison; and Hess, Robert. Compensatory Education for Cultural Deprivation, New York, 1965.

The text of this conference report says little of interest, however, the volume contains an excellent annotated bibliography.

21. Boyd, G. F. "The Levels of Aspiration of White and Negro Children in a Non-Segregated Elementary School," Journal of Social Psychology, XXXVI (1952), 191-196.

Author maintains that aspiration levels of Negroes and whites in this age were found to be roughly equivalent.

22. Brazziel, William F. and Terrel, Mary. "An Experiment in the Development of Readiness in a Culturally Disadvantaged Group of First Grade Children," Journal of Negro Education, XXXI (Winter, 1962), 4-7.

23. Briggs, William A. and Hummel, Dean L. Counseling Minority Group Children, Columbus, Ohio, 1962.

24. Brittain, C. V. "Preschool Programs for Culturally Deprived Children," Children, XIII (1966), 131-134.

This article reviews research studies of several preschool projects and is highly critical of the quality of the research and somewhat skeptical of the long-term value of the projects.

25. Bruck, Max and Bowin, Raymond F. "The Relationship Between Self-Concept and the Presence and Absence of Scholastic Underachievement," Journal of Clinical Psychology, XVIII (April, 1962), 181-182.

Authors demonstrate a relationship between self-esteem or lack of it and performance in school; they suggest more research is needed to confirm correlation.

26. Burchill, George (ed.). Work-Study Programs for Alienated Youth: A Casebook, Chicago, 1962.

A useful discussion of several work-study programs and suggestions given for establishing a model program in "conclusion."

27. Burton, William, H. "Education and Social Class in the United States," Harvard Educational Review, XXIII (Fall, 1953), 243-257.

28. California Department of Education. Teacher Guide to the Education of Spanish-Speaking Children, XXI (1952), Sacramento.

29. Carson, A. S. and Robin, A. "Verbal Comprehension and Communication in Negro and White Children," Journal of Educational Psychology, LI (1960), 47-51.

This study shows whites superior in verbal skills when compared to Negroes.

30. Cervantes, Lucius F. The Dropout: Causes and Cures, Ann Arbor, Michigan, 1965.

This recent book presents neither causes nor cures of the dropout problem but serves as a useful overview.

31. Cheyney, Arnold B. Teaching Culturally Disadvantaged in the Elementary School, Columbus, Ohio, 1967.

32. Coleman, James S. Equality of Opportunity in Education, 1966.

Massive report "to the President and the Congress...concerning... equal educational opportunities..." in the United States.

33. Conners, C. K. and Eisenberg, L. The Effect of Teacher Behavior on Verbal Intelligence in Operation Head Start, n.d. (mimeo).

34. Cooper, Shirley, et al. Imperatives in Education, Washington, D. C., 1966.

35. Cozzo, Joyce R., et al. A Minority of One, San Bernadino, California, 1964.

A well-written report of a successful compensatory education program for a predominantly Negro and Mexican school in the Los Angeles area.

36. Cuban, Larry. "The Cardoza Peace Corps Project: Experiment in Urban Education," Social Education, XXVIII (Dec., 1964), 446-450.

An interesting project in a Washington, D. C. high school which used Peace Corps returnees as teacher aides in a Negro central city school.

37. Curry, R. L. "The Effect of Socio-Economic Status on the Scholastic Achievement of Sixth-Grade Children," British Journal of Educational Psychology, XXXII (1962), 46-49.

Article maintains that the average intelligence lower class child has a great deal of difficulty overcoming his background and only the extremely bright children from lower socio-economic levels are likely to receive college degrees.

38. Daniel, Walter G. "Problems of Disadvanteged Youth, Urban and Rural," Journal of Negro Education, XXXIII (Summer, 1964), 218-225.

39. Darling, Richard L. "School Library Services for the Culturally Deprived Child," School Life, XXXXVI (Oct., 1963).

40. Davidson, Helen H. and Lang, Gerhard. "Children's Perception of Their Teacher's Feelings Toward Them Related to Self-Perception, School Achievement, and Behavior," Journal of Experimental Education, XXIX (Dec., 1960), 107-118.

Authors show a correlation between the attitude of the teacher toward a pupil as perceived by the pupil and the achievement of that pupil in school; middle class children are more likely to perceive their teacher to have a positive image of them than lower class children.

41. Davis, Allison. Social Class Influences Upon Learning, Cambridge, Massachusetts, 1962.

This series of lectures given during World War II provides a good general statement concerning the nature of learning retardation affecting the lower class student in American schools.

42. "Debate with Moynihan Continues," IRCD Bulletin, III, No. 2 (March, 1967).

43. Della-Dora, Delmo. "The Culturally Disadvantaged: Educational Implications of Certain Social-Cultural Phenomena," Exceptional Children, XXVIII (May, 1962), 467-471.

44. Demos, C. D. "Attitudes of Mexican-American and Anglo-American Groups Toward Education," Journal of Social Psychology, LVII (1962), 249-256.

In this study Anglos had more favorable attitudes toward school than did students of Mexican ancestry.

45. Deutsch, Martin. "The Disadvantaged Child and the Learning Process," Education in Depressed Areas, A. Harry Passow (ed.), New York, 1963.

46. _____. "Early Social Environment: Its Influence on School Adaptation," Project: School Dropouts, Daniel Schrieber (ed.), Washington, D. C., 1964.

47. _____, et al. "Guidelines for Testing Minority Group Children," Journal of Social Issues, XX (Feb., 1964a), 129-145.

48. _____. "Minority Group and Class Status as Related to Social and Personality Factors in Scholastic Achievement," Monograph of the Society of Applied Anthropology, Whole No. 2, 1960.

49. _____. "Social and Psychological Perspectives on the Development of the Disadvantaged Learner," Journal of Negro Education, XXXIII (Summer, 1964b), 232-245.

50. _____. "Some Psychological Aspects of Learning in the Disadvantaged," Mental Health and Achievement, Torrance, E. Paul and Strom, Robert D., (eds.), New York, 1965.

51. _____ and Brown, Bert. "Social Influences in Negro-White Intelligence Differences," Journal of Social Issues, XX (April, 1964c), 24-35.

Martin Deutsch presents in these articles the most articulate presentation concerning the cognitive and verbal deficits experienced by a lower class student; he suggests that these deficits can be compensated for by preschool training and compensatory education programs given throughout the school years of the culturally different student.

52. Dolger, Laura and Ginandes, Janet. "Children's Attitudes Toward Discipline as Related to Socio-Economic Status," Journal of Experimental Education, XV (Dec., 1946), 161-165.

53. Donovan, John C. "Implications of Manpower Training for American Education," Phi Delta Kappan, XXXXVI (April, 1965), 366-367.

54. Douvan, Elizabeth. "Social Status and Success Striving," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, LII (March, 1956), 219-223.

Author shows that achievement is related to class; middle class subjects responded to success cues more frequently than their lower class counterparts.

55. Elam, Stanley (ed.). "Educating the Culturally Deprived in the Great Cities," Phi Delta Kappan, XXXXV (Nov., 1963), 70-100.

56. Fischer, John H., et al. Education and the Disadvantaged American, 1962.

57. Fowler, William. "Cognitive Learning in Infancy and Early Childhood," Psychological Bulletin, LIX (1962), 116-152.

Among other subjects the author discusses deficits in learning which afflict lower class children.

58. _____. "The Design of Early Developmental Learning Programs for Disadvantaged Young Children," Supplement to The IRCD Bulletin, III (1967).

An excellent discussion of four preschool projects.

59. Fusco, Gene C. School-Home Partnerships, Washington, D. C., 1964.

Author discusses a program to work at home with parents of culturally deprived children.

60. Getzels, J. W. "Preschool Education," Teacher's College Record, LXVIII (Dec., 1966), 219-228.

61. Gill, Lois J. and Spilka, Bernard. "Some Non-Intellectual Correlates of Academic Achievement Among Mexican-American Secondary School Students," Journal of Educational Psychology, LIII (June, 1962), 144-149.

Articles argues that Mexican-American students who do well in school are less rebellious, more secure in school, etc.; in short, they are more socialized.

62. Gist, Noel P. and Bennett, William S., Jr. "Aspirations of Negro and White Students," Social Forces, XXXXII (1963), 40-48.

Authors maintain that Negroesand whites have equal aspirations; Negroes had higher aspirations for social nobility in this study than did whites.

63. Goff, Regina M. "Some Educational Implications of the Influence of Rejection on Aspiration Levels of Minority Group Children," Journal of Experimental Education, XXIII (Dec., 1954), 179-183.

Author argues that minority group children bring a feeling of rejection to school; there it is reinforced thereby causing a cumulative rejection pattern throughout their school experience.

64. Goodlad, John. Changing School Curriculum, New York, 1966.

65. Goodman, Mary Ellen. Race Awareness in Young Children, Cambridge, Eng., 1952.

66. Gordon, E. W. "Characteristics of Socially Disadvantaged Children," Review of Educational Research, XXXV (Dec., 1965), 377-388.

67. Gottlieb, David. "Goal Aspirations and Goal Fulfillments: Differences Between Deprived and Affluent American Adolescents," American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, XXIV (Oct., 1964), 934-941.

Author argues that Negroes have lower aspiration levels than whites, however, he found this less pronounced among females than males.

68. _____. "Teaching and Students: The Views of Negro and White Teachers," Sociology of Education XXXVII (Summer, 1964a), 345-353.

69. Gray, S. W. and Klaus, R. A. "An Experimental Preschool Program for Culturally Deprived Children" Child Development XXVI (1965), 887-899.

Authors argue, in discussing a program in a upper south city, that many years are needed to analyze ultimate effect of any preschool program; short of that any extrapolations must be somewhat speculative.

70. Haggard, Ernest. "Social Status and Intelligence," Genetic Psychology Monographs, No. 49 (1954), 141-186.

Author argues that I.Q. is contingent upon social class more than innate abilities for many groups, such as the culturally deprived.

71. Haggstrom, Warren C. "The Power of the Poor," Poverty in America, Ferman, Louis A.; Kornbluh, Joyce L.; and Haber, Alan (eds.), Ann Arbor, Michigan, 1965.

Author maintains that poverty breeds an attitude of powerlessness and feelings of inability to control one's environment.

72. Harris, Norman. "Redoubled Efforts and Dimly Seen Goals," Phi Delta Kappan, CXVI (April, 1965), 360-365.

73. Haubrich, V. F. "The Culturally Different: New Context for Teacher Education," Journal of Teacher Education, XIV (1963), 163-167.

Author describes a Hunter College (N.Y.) project to provide teachers with on-the-spot training in slum schools before they take jobs in these schools.

74. Havighurst, Robert J. "Who Are the Socially Disadvantaged," Journal of Negro Education, XXXIII (Summer, 1964), 210-218.

75. Hess, Robert and Easton, David. "Role of the Elementary School in Political Socialization," School Review, LXX (1962), 257-265.

76. Hollingshead, August B. Elltown's Youth, New York, 1961.

77. Holt, Irving. "School Administrators and the 'Educationally Disadvantaged' Child," Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, IIL (March, 1964), 85-95.

78. Hunt, David E. "Adolescence: Cultural Deprivation, Poverty, and the Dropout," Review of Educational Research, XXXVI (Oct., 1966), 463-473.

79. Jensen, Arthur R. "Learning Abilities in Mexican-American and Anglo-American Children," California Journal of Educational Research, XII (1961), 147-159.

Articles shows a low correlation between I.Q. and learning ability among Mexican-Americans as tested by a learning test; high correlation between white's scores on I.Q. and learning test. Study casts suspicion on validity of I.Q. tests for Mexican-American children.

80. John, Vera P. "The Intellectual Development of Slum Children: Some Preliminary Findings," American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, XXXIII (1963), 813-822.

81. _____ and Goldstein, Leo S. "The Social Context of Language Acquisition," Merrill-Palmer Quarterly of Behavior and Development, X (July, 1964), 265-275.

Authors discuss different patterns of learning language found among diverse social classes.

82. Johnson, G. Orville. Education for the Slow Learners, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, 1963.

83. _____. "Organizing Instruction and Curriculum Planning for the Socially Disadvantaged," Journal of Negro Education, XXXIII (Summer, 1964), 254-264.

Article contains several useful suggestions for curriculum planning.

84. Johnson, L. W. "A Comparison of the Vocabularies of Anglo-American and Spanish-American High School Pupils," Journal of Educational Psychology, XXIX (1938), 139-144.

Vocabularies of Mexican-Americans were found to be weaker and less abstract than for Anglo-Americans by this author.

85. Jones, R. Stewart. "Instructional Problems and Issues," Review of Educational Research, XXXVI (Oct., 1966), 414-424.

86. Kaplan, Bernard A. "Issues in Educating the Culturally Disadvantaged," Phi Delta Kappan, VL (Nov., 1963), 70-76.

87. Katz, Irwin. "Review of Evidence Relating to Effects of Desegregation on the Intellectual Performance of Negroes,"American Psycholgist, XIX (June, 1964), 381-400.

Author points out many problems of integration which negatively affect Negro I.Q., performance in school, and achievement; a crucial article for those who view desegregation as a panacea for the problems of Negro school children.

88. Kennedy, A.; Van DeRiet, V.; and White, J. C., Jr. "A Normative Sample of Intelligence and Achievement of Negro Elementary School Children in the Southeastern United States," Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, XXVIII (1963), 1-112.

Authors show upper-status Negros to have a mean Stanford-Binet, L.M. score of 105 and lower-status Negros to have a comparable score of 79; obvious correlation between I.Q. and social status. Similar correlation on achievement scores.

89. Klineberg, Otto. "Negro-White Differences in Intelligence Test Performance: A New Look at an Old Problem," American Psychologist, XVIII (April, 1963), 198-203.

Author concludes that there is no scientific evidence indicating innate intelligence differences between Negroes and whites.

90. Kolb, David A. "Achievement Motivation Training for Underachieving High School Boys," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, II (Dec., 1965), 783-792.

After a rise in achievement scores a group of boys was retested several months after project was completed; they returned to preproject scores. Author concludes they returned to same environment and, therefore, to the same retarded achievement level.

91. Krugman, Judith I. "Cultural Deprivation and Child Development," High Points, XXXVIII (Nov., 1956), 5-21.

92. Krugman, Morris. "The Culturally Deprived Child in School," National Education Association Journal, L (1961), 22-33.

93. _____. "Educating the Disadvantaged Child," The Schools and the Urban Crisis, August Kerber and Barbara Bommarito (eds.), New York, 1965.

94. Landers, Jacob. "The Responsibilities of Teachers and School Administrators," Journal of Negro Education, XXXIII (Summer, 1964), 318-333.

95. Larson R. and Olson, J. L. "A Method of Identifying Culturally Deprived Kindergarten Children," Exceptional Children, XXX (1963), 130-134.

96. Layton, Warren K. "Special Services for the Dropout and the Potential Dropout," National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, XXXVII (March, 1953), 72-76.

97. Lee, E. S. "Negro Intelligence and Selective Migration: A Philadelphia Test of the Klinebert Hypothesis," American School Review, XVI (1951), 227-233.

This study shows Negro children to score higher on I.Q. tests if they have resided longer in this northern city; the longer the residence, the higher the score when compared to recent southern immigrants.

98. Lesser, G. S.; Fifer, G.; and Clark, D. H. "Mental Abilities of Children from Different Social Class and Cultural Groups," Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, XXX (1965), Serial #102.

Authors show I.Q. related to socio-economic level within ethnic groups; Negroes, Jews, Chinese, and Puerto Rican first graders were tested.

99. Lichter, Solomon O., et al, (ed.). The Dropouts, New York, 1962.

Author examines dropout problem from a psychological point of view.

100. Liddle, Gordon P. and Rockwell, Robert E. "The Role of Parents and Family Life," Journal of Negro Education, XXXIII (Summer, 1964), 311-318.

Authors present several helpful suggestions for integrating parents of culturally deprived children into a compensatory education program.

101. Lisonbee, Lorenzo. "Teaching Science to the Slow Learner: The BSCS Point of View," School Science and Mathematics, LXV (1965), 39-46.

102. Loeb, Martin B. "Implications of Status Differentiation for Personal and Social Development," Harvard Educational Review, XXIII (Summer, 1953), 168-175.

Article outlines many lower class traits which must be changed in order for children from this socio-economic level to adjust to the American middle class school.

103. Longstreth, Langdon E. and Shanley, Fred J. "Experimental Evaluation of a High School Program for Potential Dropouts," Journal of Educational Psychology, LV (Aug., 1964), 228-236.

This program yielded ambiguous results; police-contact rate of control group about equal to experimental group but experimental group showed less hostility toward school.

104. Loretan, Joseph O. and Umans, Shelley. Teaching the Disadvantaged, New Curriculum Approaches, New York, 1966.

This is an excellent reference book for curricula on math, science, social sciences, and English; each chapter contains an extensive bibliography.

105. Lottich, Kenneth V. and Meiseger, Lynn. "The Problem of Social Class in American Schools," The Social Studies, LV (Dec., 1964), 253-258.

106. Lowrie, Jean. "Providing School Library Services for the Culturally Deprived: Fitting the Program to the Problem," American Library Association Bulletin, LIX (Jan., 1965), 49-53.

Author summarizes various library programs for the culturally deprived with special focus on Head Start and other preschool programs.

107. McCloskey, Elinor F. Urban Disadvantaged, Portland, Oregon, 1967.

Useful summary of 99 research reports.

108. Malone, Charles. "Safety First: Comments on the Influences of External Danger in the Lives of Children of Disorganized Families," American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, XXXVI (Jan., 1966), 3-11.

Author argues that external danger in the lives of the culturally different creates a personality which seeks immediate gratification.

109. Mannino, Fortune V. "Family Factors Related to School Persistence," Journal of Educational Sociology, XXXV (Jan., 1962), 192-202.

110. Marburger, Carl L. "School and Community Roles in Effective Planning," Journal of Negro Education, XXXIII (Summer, 1964), 304-311.

Article contains several interesting ideas on involving the community in programs of compensatory education.

111. Miller, S. M. "Dropouts--a Political Problem," The School Dropout, Daniel Schreiber (ed.), Washington, D. C., 1964.

112. _____, et al. The School Dropout Problem: Syracuse, New York, 1963.

113. _____; Saleem, Betty L.; and Bryce, Herrington. School Dropouts: A Commentary and Annotated Bibliography, Syracuse, New York, 1964a.

This is the best source on the dropout issue; it contains an extremely comprehensive bibliographical section with commentary.

114. Mischel, W. "Delay of Gratification, Need for Achievement, and Aquiescence in Another Culture," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, LXII (1961), 543-552.

A discussion of the correlation between achievement and deferred gratification; the latter a middle class trait not found as often among lower class groups and common among high achieving students.

115. Mobley, Mayor D. and Barlow, Melvin L. Vocational Education, NSSE Yearbook, 64th, 1965.

116. Mowrer, George E. The School and Community Work-Related Education Program of the St. Louis Public Schools: Activity and Progress Report, 1961-1962, St. Louis, 1962 (mimeo).

This work-study project was very successful in reducing the dropout rate in the experimental group: 57% the first year; 4.4% the second year; and 17.9% the third year.

117. Mulligan, Raymond A. "Socio-Economic Background and College Enrollment," American Sociological Review, XVI (April, 1951), 188-196.

118. Newton, Eunice S. "Planning for the Language Development of Disadvantaged Children and Youth," Journal of Negro Education, XXXIII (Summer, 1964), 264-275.

119. Ohio Civil Rights Commission. Counseling Minority Group Youth, Columbus, Ohio, 1962.

120. Parsons, Theodore W., Jr. Ethnic Clearage in a California School, Stanford, 1965.

121. Pasamanick, B. and Knoblock, Hilda. "The Contribution of Some Organic Factors to School Retardation in Negro Children," Journal of Negro Education, XXVII (1958), 4-9.

122. Passow A. Harry (ed.). Education in Depressed Areas, New York, 1963.

123. Pearce, Theodore. "Vocational Education: A Community Responsibility," American School Board Journal, XXXVI (April 7, 1965).

124. Pearl, Arthur. "Educational Change: Why-How-For Whom," unedited speeches distributed by San Francisco Human Rights Commission, 1967.

125. Perry, June. "The Preparation of Disadvantaged Youth for Employment and Civic Responsibility," Journal of Negro Education, XXXIII (Summer, 1964), 275-282.

126. Pettigrew, T. "Negro American Intelligence: A New Look at an Old Controversy," Journal of Negro Education, XXXIII (Summer, 1964), 6-25.

127. Phillips, Waldo B. "Counseling Negro Pupils: An Educational Dilemma," Journal of Negro Education, XXIX (Winter, 1960), 504-507.

Author discusses the many caveats of counseling Negro youths, especially when the counselor is a Caucasian.

128. Reed, Harold J. "Guidance and Counseling," Journal of Negro Education, XXXIII (Summer, 1964), 282-290.

Author advocates a wide expansion of the counselor's duties in order for him to function as a full-time liaison between the school and the community.

129. Riessman, Frank. The Culturally Deprived Child, New York, 1962.

This book is a somewhat superficial but comprehensive treatment of the subject; a suggestion list for compensatory education programs appears in the "conclusion."

130. _____. "The Overlooked Positives of Disadvantaged Youth," Journal of Negro Education, XXXIII (Summer, 1964), 225-232.

131. Robinson, M. L. and Meenes, M. "The Relationship Between Test Intelligence of Third Grade Negro Children and the Occupations of Their Parents," Journal of Negro Education, XVI (1947), 136-141.

This experiment shows Negro children of professional parents to have significantly higher scores than those of laborers.

132. Rosen, B. C. "The Achievement Syndrome: A Psychocultural Dimension of Social Stratification," American Sociological Review, XXI (1956), 203-211.

Author maintains that middle class children have higher motivation than their lower class counterparts and are better socialized with the values underlying motivation such as "hard work."

133. Rousseve, R. J. "Teachers of Culturally Disadvantaged American Youth," Journal of Negro Education, XXXII (Spring, 1963), 114-121.

134. Ruttenberg, Stanley. "Manpower: Exploring Future Needs," American Vocational Journal, XXXXI (Feb., 1966), 38-40.

135. Savitsky, Charles. "Work Experience Programs for Potential Dropouts," Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, XXXXVI (Nov., 1962), 53-59.

136. Schorr, Alvin L. "The Non-Culture of Poverty," American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, XXXIV (March, 1964), 907-912.

137. Schreiber, Daniel. "Identifying and Developing Able Students From Less Privileged Groups," High Points, XL (1958), 5-23.

138. _____, (ed.). The School Dropout, Washington, D. C., 1964.

139. Schultz, Raymond E. "A Comparison of Negro Pupils Ranking High With Those Ranking Low in Educational Achievement," Journal of Educational Sociology, XXXI (March, 1958), 265-271.

Author found high ranking Negro pupils to differ from low ranking Negro pupils by socio-economic variables: education of parents, income of parents, etc., all more advanced among high ranking pupils.

140. Semler, Ira I. and Iscoe, Ira. "A Comparative and Developmental Study of Learning Abilities of Negro and White Children Under Four Conditions," Journal of Educational Psychology, LIV (Feb., 1963), 38-44.

Authors found a low correlation between Negro I.Q. scores and learning abilities; again casts suspicion on I.Q. tests for minority groups.

141. Sexton, Patricia. Education and Income, New York, 1961.

This author presents a great deal of evidence in a rather sloppy manner to show correlations between income and educational advantages in a midwestern city.

142. Shaw, Frederick. "Educating Culturally Deprived Youth in Urban Centers," The Schools and the Urban Crisis, August Kerber and Barbara Bommarite (eds.), New York, 1965.

143. Sheldon, Paul M. "Mexican-Americans in Urban Public Schools: An Exploration of the Dropout Problem," California Journal of Educational Research, XII (1961), 21-27.

144. Shepard, Samuel, Jr. "Working With Parents of Disadvantaged Children," Urban Education and Cultural Deprivation, C. W. Hunnicutt, (ed.), Syracuse, 1964.

145. Siller, J. "Socio-Economic Status in Conceptual Thinking," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, LV (1957), 365-371.

Author shows how conceptual thinking is related to socio-economic status and maintains that lower status children are less likely to have facility in conceptual thought, especially when it involves verbal skills.

146. Slocomb, Herlin. "The Myth of Neglect," Clearing House, XXIX (1955), 346-349.

In reaction to the charge that our schools neglect the bright student, this high school vice principal shows inadvertantly that the rewards and benefits of a high school in Seattle go to a small minority of the student population.

147. Smilansky, S. "Progress Report on a Program to Demonstrate Ways of Using a Year of Kindergarten to Promote Cognitive Abilities, Impart Basic Information, and Modify Attitudes Which Are Essential for Scholastic Success of Culturally Deprived Children in Their First Two Years of School," University of Chicago, School of Education, (mimeo), undated.

This article discusses an extremely successful preschool program for Oriental Jews in Israel which stresses the training of non-assimilated groups by providing them with basic skills needed for academic success in a European-type school system.

148. Smith, H. D. and Anderson, Marcia. "Racial and Family Experience Correlates of Mobility and Aspiration," Journal of Negro Education, XXXI (Winter, 1965), 117-124.

In this study Negroes had equal aspirations when compared with whites, however, the latter group ranked higher on value system required to attain goals predicated by aspirations.

149. Smith, Marion. Teaching the Slow Learning Child, New York, 1954.

150. Spears, Harold. "How an Urban School Identifies Its Disadvantaged," Journal of Negro Education, XXXIII (Summer, 1964), 245-254.

151. Steen, Margaret. The Effects of Immediate and Delayed Reinforcement on the Achievement Behavior of Mexican-American Children of Low Socio-Economic Status, Stanford, 1966.

This study concludes that low status Mexican-American children are orientated to the present and prefer immediate gratification rather than deferred gratification for duties performed.

152. Strom, Robert D. Teaching in the Slum School, Columbus, Ohio, 1965.

153. Taba, Hilda and Elkins, D. Teaching Strategies for Culturally Disadvantaged, 1966.

154. Tenenbaum, Samuel. "The Teacher, the Middle Class, the Lower Class," Phi Delta Kappan, VL (Nov., 1963), 82-86.

155. Thompson, Daniel C. "Evaluation as a Factor in Planning Programs for the Culturally Disadvantaged," Journal of Negro Education, XXXIII (Summer, 1964), 333-341.

156. Thompson, Peggy. "D. C.'s Other Tongue--An' All 'A' Kinna Stuff," San Francisco Chronicle (reprinted from the Washington Post), "This World" Section, July 2, 1967.

This article is an excellent discussion of Negro dialect and a program of compensatory training to eliminate its retarding effects in the schools.

157. Torrance, E. Paul. "Different Ways of Learning for Different Kinds of Children," Mental Health and Achievement, E. Paul Torrance and Robert D. Strom (eds.), New York, 1965.

158. _____ and Strom, Robert D. Mental Health and Achievement, New York, 1965.

159. Trueblood, Dennis L. "The Role of the Counselor in the Guidance of Negro Students," Harvard Educational Review, XXX (Summer, 1960), 252-269.

160. Usdam, Michael and Bertolaet, Frederick, (eds.). Teachers for the Disadvantaged, Chicago, 1966.

161. Vocational Education Problems. NSSE Yearbook, 64th, 1965.

162. Vontress, Clemmont E. "Our Demoralizing Slum Schools," Phi Delta Kappan, VL (Nov., 1963), 77-81.

163. Walsh, John P. and Seldon, William. Vocational Education, NSSE Yearbook, LXIV (1965).

164. Webster, Staten (ed.). The Disadvantaged Learner: Knowing, Understanding, Educating, San Francisco, 1966.

165. Weinberg, Meyer (ed.). Learning Together: A Book on Integrated Education, Chicago, 1964.

166. Wilkerson, Doxey A. "Prevailing and Needed Emphasis in Research on the Education of Disadvantaged Children and Youth," Journal of Negro Education, XXXIII (Summer, 1964), 346-358.

167. _____. "Programs and Practices in Compensatory Education for Disadvantaged Children," Review of Educational Research, XXV (Dec., 1965), 426-440.

These two excellent articles review the research on compensatory education programs and in a highly analytical manner suggest what types of controls are needed in order to be able to extrapolate useful information from research on compensatory education projects--controls which the author maintains were lacking in most of the research reports reviewed.

168. Williams, J. R. and Knecht, Walter W. "Teacher's Ratings of High School Students on 'Likability' and Their Relations to Measures of Ability and Achievement," Journal of Educational Research, LVI (Nov., 1962), 152-155.

Author shows a high correlation between "likability," i.e., student's acceptance by the teacher, and ability and achievement; those students with high "likability" scores were also high achievers.

169. Wilson, Alan B. "Residential Segregation of Social Classes and Aspirations of High School Boys," American Sociological Review, XXIV (Dec., 1959), 836-845.

170. Wolf, Eleanor and Wolf, Leo. "Sociological Perspective on the Education of Culturally Deprived Children," School Review, LXX (Winter, 1962), 373-387.

171. Wylie, Ruth C. "Children's Estimates of Their Schoolwork Ability as a Function of Sex, Race, and Socio-Economic Status," Journal of Personality, XXXI (June, 1963), 203-224.

Author maintains that lower class students have a lower estimate of their own abilities than do middle class students and that Negroes have a more modest estimate than whites; weak self-image more pronounced among Negro, lower class female students than white, middle class male students.